

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

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The Mont- gomery Conference.

The Montgomery conference for the discussion of race problems by southern white men was a gathering of unusual interest. Dr. Curry, one of the prominent speakers, was one of the two surviving members of the provisional congress that assembled in Montgomery on the fourth of February, 1861, to lay the foundation of a new government. The special reason for calling this conference was the increase of crime in the south, not only among the blacks but among the whites. The various speakers made it quite clear that while emancipation has made it possible for a large part of the colored race to rise higher than they would otherwise have been able to do, it has at the same time removed a restraining influence from a class that is inclined toward criminality, and which, being freed from forced labor, has become idle and vagabond. That more work is done by the blacks now than in slavery days is shown by the south's increased yield of cotton. On the other hand, a certain element is now more idle and more criminal than before.

The movement from the country to the city has included an element of the black race that is little able to

contend with the temptations of city life or to make its way against competition. Dr. Du Bois's "Philadelphia Negro" shows what this drift of the blacks to the cities means—the worst quarters, lack of employment, growth of crime and disease. Statistics of negro mortality and crime are collected for the most part in cities, and so a bad showing is made for the race.

Most of the speakers at the conference declared that giving the blacks the ballot has increased crime among both races. The repeal of the fifteenth amendment, and property and educational qualifications for suffrage were advocated. It was made quite clear that the sort of education which helps to form the work habit and give to both whites and blacks a knowledge of common things and an interest in them is greatly needed. An educational qualification applied to both races alike would receive the indorsement of the best element of the blacks. This plan was advocated by ex-Governor McCorkle, of West Virginia.

While the suggestion of the separation of the two races was received with applause by the audience at Montgomery, it is doubtful if the

thoughtful men of the south would seriously consider it. Attempts to remove the blacks from certain counties have met with the most determined opposition from southern white men.

Dr. Barringer, of the university of Virginia, endeavored to show that the negroes are dying out, that only in slavery had they made any progress, and that since freedom there has been a steady decline in their mental, moral, and physical condition. He said that while they pay but a small part of the taxes of the state, a large amount is spent for their education. Hon. H. A. Herbert called attention to the fact that while it is true that they pay a comparatively small amount of taxes, yet most of the wealth of the south is produced by their labor. It might also be added that in most of the southern states even the criminal class, instead of being a financial burden, is a source of revenue. Many of the penitentiaries show a large credit balance. Hon. Bourke Cochran declared it to be his belief that a race that had survived the thirty years after freedom under the very trying conditions that have prevailed, that had increased in numbers, and had produced larger crops than under slavery, was not in a hopeless condition.

Instruction
of the
Adult Blind.

In compliance with a legislative resolution of 1899, a report has been submitted to the present general court of Massachusetts by the state board of education, on the possibility

and desirability of providing instruction for adult blind persons at their homes. The report, after recording suggestions of various experts in the subject who have been consulted, concludes that such slight intellectual opportunities as are now open to adult blind in the state should be increased by home instruction. Practically nothing is done for the relatively large number of persons who have become blind after the school years are passed. The proposition to organize a state printing establishment for a weekly newspaper for the blind is not commended. There are several such periodicals already in existence. It is recommended that the state make a small appropriation enabling the Perkins institution and Massachusetts school for the blind to send out competent blind persons for the instruction of the adult blind in their homes. Such teachers should search out the blind in their homes, and tell them what it is possible and desirable for them to do in the way of learning to read and write. No single system should be insisted upon, but whatever one seems best adapted to the acuteness of touch of the individual learner. These teachers should bring suitable literature to the attention of the blind, and make it easy for them to utilize the resources that exist in providing books for the blind. It is thought that the teachers, who perhaps themselves have been trained in one or more industrial occupations, may give more or less complete instruction in this direction, or at least pave

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the way for other persons competent to do so. It should be their work also to know something about the precautions necessary to head off possible blindness. Much of this, especially in the case of infants, is preventable. It is felt that anything which tends to stimulate the intellectual activity of the adult blind and prevent them from falling into a hopeless apathy will be of direct economic benefit to the community, serving to keep many of this class from giving up hope in life and ultimately falling back on the community for pauper support. It is noticeable that the adult blind are generally unwilling to make any aggressive effort to better their condition. The work of the proposed teachers would be not only to afford opportunities for learning, but to stimulate the desire for it.

District
of Columbia
Board
of Charities.

Considerable disappointment was felt last year by friends of public charities in Washington that the national conference of charities and correction did not come to the national capital this spring. An effort has been on foot for some time to arouse in congress a sense of the need of better systematization of the charities of the district of Columbia than has heretofore existed, and it was hoped that the presence of the conference would help to awaken an interest in the matter. But the conference went to Topeka, to lend its influence toward a better conception of public charities in that state, and the unaided efforts of the

advocates of a reorganization of the Washington charities seemed to be of no avail. After discouraging delays, however, the proposed bill forming a board of charities for the district was taken up and passed by congress, and, after a mysterious disappearance, finally placed in the hands of the president and signed at the last moment. The bill abolishes the office of superintendent of charities for the district of Columbia, and hereafter the charities of the district will be under the control of a board of charities consisting of five residents of the district, appointed by the president for a term of three years. These will appoint a salaried secretary and such inspectors and other officers as may be necessary.

The board is to visit, inspect, and maintain a general supervision over all institutions, societies, or associations of charitable or correctional character supported in whole or in part by appropriations of congress made for the care or treatment of residents of the district. No payment is permitted to any such institution for any resident of the district who is not received or maintained therein pursuant to the rules established by the board of charities, except in the case of persons committed by the courts, or abandoned infants needing immediate care. Other functions of the new board are those usually belonging to state boards of charity, and have already been mentioned, in the REVIEW for April.

This tendency to take the charities of the district under the direct con-

trol of the government was emphasized by the defeat of a proposition to appropriate fifty thousand dollars for a building on the grounds of a private hospital and the appropriation of one hundred thousand dollars to purchase a site for a municipal hospital.

Baltimore
C. O. S.

Miss Mary E. Richmond will be succeeded as general secretary of the charity organization society of Baltimore by Miss Mary Willcox Brown, who is at present secretary of the Henry Watson children's aid society of Baltimore. Miss Brown has been for several years a manager of the charity organization society, and also a member of its executive committee.

Free
Municipal
Baths.

It may not be commonly known that New York state has a law which requires that cities of the first and second classes shall erect and maintain free public baths. In 1892, a permissive bill was passed, enabling the erection of such baths by cities, villages, and towns, and the issue of bonds for this purpose. At that time mandatory legislation was refused on the ground that it would be too great an encroachment on the rights of localities. When it was found after three years that nothing had been done, not a single municipality showing a desire to avail itself of the privilege, a bill was introduced in 1895 making the establishment of baths compulsory upon cities of the

first and second classes. The provisions, briefly, are that such a number of free baths shall be established as the local board of health may deem to be necessary. Each bath is to be kept open not less than fourteen hours each day, and hot and cold water are to be provided. The erection and maintenance of ocean or river baths are not deemed a compliance with the law.

For two years nothing was done under the act. The first bath erected was opened January 1, 1897, in Buffalo. It has a capacity of one thousand baths per day, and cost \$8,000, exclusive of the land. Here each bather is provided with a fresh piece of soap and a clean towel. The bath has become very popular, and a second will be opened before long. In Rochester opposition was made to the statute, but the supreme court sustained its validity. The bath there erected is substantially on the same lines as the Buffalo plant and cost, exclusive of land, about \$5,000. In Albany money has been appropriated, plans prepared, and the contract is about to be let providing for a plant costing \$22,000. In Syracuse and Troy nothing has been done beyond discussing the subject. In New York city the first bath is nearing completion. It is located on Rivington street, in a particularly crowded portion of the city. The cost will be somewhat over \$100,000, including the site, and there will be accommodations for about 3,000 bathers a day, at the rate of twenty

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minutes for each. There are sixty-seven spray baths, one-third each for men, women, and boys, the stalls permitting ample space for dressing and the care of clothing. Mr. Goodwin Bown, of the state commission in lunacy, to whose efforts this law is in large measure due, is an enthusiastic advocate of the shower bath. Since 1891, this system, at that time somewhat novel, has been used almost exclusively in the state hospitals of New York. The economy of the system over the tub bath is very considerable, both in the cost of fixtures and in the quantity of heated water required, while the sanitary worth of the shower is far greater than that of the tub.

The Howard association of London, in connection with a discussion of the housing problems of London and other centres of population, calls attention to the curious current of population in Denmark from the towns into the country, this being accompanied by a prosperity which makes Denmark rank as the second country in the world in per capita wealth. Part of this movement may be explained by the reclaiming of a large area of waste land, which, added to that already held by the peasant classes, brings five-sixths of the territory of the country into the possession of small freeholders and peasants. It is not, however, the number of small holdings, or the opening of new land to settlers, which seems to have been the secret of Denmark's

success in setting the tide of population away from the cities and "back to the land." The reason is to be found rather in the social life and organization which has been developed in the farming communities. For instance, Danish farmers and dairy owners have formed co-operative societies for the collection, sale, and export of their produce, and with great advantage. The peasantry have established some four hundred banks, chiefly under their own management. There are several hundred cattle-breeding societies. Numerous co-operative steam dairies, bakeries, factories, and mills have been set up. University and college students have taken a patriotic course of action in instituting free lectures and evening classes for the working people, committees for the promotion of popular amusements and cheap literature, and also for free legal advice. Nearly one hundred "people's high schools" have been established in various parts of the country. These are conducted by private proprietors, aided by very moderate subsidies from the government, without any vexatious restrictions upon the education imparted, but at the same time with due care that the grants are well earned. The young men and women of the peasantry and working classes, of the ages of from eighteen to twenty-five, obtain board and instruction at these high schools for several months at a time, especially in winter, and at the low cost of about \$2.50 a week. The teaching at these institutions is largely oral, and gives special promi-

"Back to the Land"

nence to the national traditions and history, together with practical science bearing on matters of rural life and occupation. Many other social organizations and influences are at work. In almost every village a public hall has been erected for popular recreation and social gatherings. The rural population has thus become roused to a lively, cheerful existence, both pleasant and peculiarly profitable, and country life with its healthfulness has been made universally attractive.

**Electric
Power
Distribution.**

The *Hospital* favors the proposals which are now being made for the establishment in England of enormous electric works in the neighborhood of coal mines, where electricity can be produced at an extremely cheap rate, and distributed to whatever locality desires light and power. What is said applies almost equally to cities of our own country:

In a country like England, which depends for its food upon its manufactures, it is the fate of the masses to live where power is to be found. Hence industrial life is crowded by the side of rivers, in the neighborhood of coal mines, and in great railway centres. Coal is the great food on which English industrialism lives, and under present circumstances the working classes are condemned to live amid the dirt that coal produces, and cut off from the sunlight by the cloud which its use entails. How different industrial life might be if power were produced far away, and were brought into the manufacturing centres, partly in the form of electricity produced at the pit-mouth, partly in the form of gas

made in places devoted to disagreeable process! Electric traction without the nuisance of electric works, gas fires without the nuisance of coal smoke, mills without chimneys, power available everywhere by merely turning on a switch, would not only give us back again the clear light of heaven in our towns, but might make it possible once again to establish country industries so that men should have access to that great element of happiness—variety of work. If electric power were once available, mills—smokeless mills—would arise in country places all along the tracks of the electrical conduits, and every mill so arising would be an influence cutting at the root of that overcrowding which is the leading cause of the physical deterioration of the working class population. If electric power distribution means smokeless towns and country mills by all means let us have it.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Massachusetts.

The Massachusetts school for the feeble-minded is making a notable departure from established methods of care for the adult feeble-minded. With money appropriated by the legislature an estate of about two thousand acres, with many natural advantages for the development and economical support of a village community composed of this class of defectives, has been purchased; and to this the trustees of the school will remove at first the boys, and eventually the girls, who have passed the school age and have been trained to useful kinds of work, and will provide for them in the farmhouses on the property and in additional houses to be erected. Twenty-five boys

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will be at once transferred from the school and will carry on the farm work, do excavating and road building and assist in the construction of buildings. Others will follow as soon as proper provision can be made for them.

At the Massachusetts hospital for epileptics a cottage for twenty sane epileptic men has recently been opened. Work is now in progress upon an infirmary to accommodate forty patients, two infirmary cottages for thirty patients each, a cottage for twenty sane epileptic women, and other buildings, which will increase the capacity of the hospital to 350 patients, and will provide for a classification into three groups, separated at some distance from each other, and practically distinct,—i. e., the main hospital group for the insane of both sexes, and separate accommodations for sane epileptic men and women.

New York. The first New York state conference will be held at Albany in November, and has been organized with Hon. William P. Letchworth, of Portage, as president; Mr. Homer Folks, of New York city, secretary; and Mr. Frank Tucker, of New York city, treasurer. The classification of discussions to be considered by the conference is in close accord with that adopted by the REVIEW in its historical series, and affords an interesting comparison with the classification of the work of the next national conference, noted on another page. It is as follows: treatment of the criminal;

the care and relief of needy families in their own homes; the care of children, defective, dependent, delinquent, and neglected; the mentally defective; institutional care of destitute adults.

Colorado. The recent tragedy in Pueblo, whereby a negro employed by a private orphanage criminally assaulted two young girls and afterwards murdered them, resulting in the public lynching of the murderer upon his arrest, will be a means of assisting the state board of charities and correction in its campaign to bring all private charitable institutions under the inspection and supervision of that board. The orphanage was established some time ago by a minister, who felt that he had a mission to perform. Lacking experience or knowledge of the work, he proceeded to gather children from a number of states and territories, housing them in small cottages in the suburbs of Pueblo, and with this start proceeded to canvass the state, making appeals for support. He was very successful in securing plenty of children, and managed to raise money sufficient to keep the enterprise afloat, though never enough to keep out of debt. There being no advisory board and no careful supervision, the tragedy ensued, as a result of ignorance in the selection of employes. The state board finds a number of these new enterprises starting up in the different parts of the state, and it is anxious to suppress all improperly organized efforts to establish charitable institutions.

Missouri. The new board of control of state lunatic asylum number four of Missouri, has awarded a contract for the erection of five cottages on the site located at Farmington, where 326 acres of ground have been secured. The institution will be constructed on the cottage plan, and the buildings to be erected at the present time will have a capacity of about 350 patients. An appropriation of \$150,000 is available for the work. Each cottage will be brick, two stories in height, the day-room on the main floor, and open dormitories on the second floor.

Efforts are making to secure a proper territorial prison for Arizona, the present prison at Yuma, where 265 prisoners are herded together, being merely a corral.

St. Louis Hospital. Recently a public hearing was given by members of the council committee on municipal affairs in St. Louis to persons interested in two plans for the erection of a new city hospital by private capital. One provides for the investment by a boulevard syndicate of \$1,660,000 in new structures, on 275 acres of ground owned by the syndicate, in the southwest portion of the city, for which the city is to agree to pay an annual rental of \$80,000. At the end of twenty-five years the city may purchase the buildings and grounds for \$2,000,000. The new hospital to be erected shall be on plans approved

by a hospital commission to be created by law. The other plan provides for the erection of a new city hospital on the site of the one destroyed by the tornado more than two years ago. It is to cost not more than \$1,000,000, and is to be erected according to plans prepared by a new hospital commission. The grounds are to be leased to a local syndicate for a nominal consideration of \$1 per annum, and the management is to receive from the city a rental of \$80,000 per annum. At the end of twenty-five years the institution is to become the property of the city.

The Criminal. "The criminal." by August Drähms, chaplain of the state prison at San Quentin, Cal.,¹ is a notable contribution to the specialty to which it belongs. Criminal anthropology, as a science, is the growth of recent years, practically of the last twenty, but it has grown rapidly. Painstaking observers, in all civilized countries, have studied the criminal. A multitude of facts in regard to him have been recorded, and many theories have been evolved and many rejected, but out of it all a considerable consensus of important conclusions has been reached. The value of the book under consideration lies largely in the careful and painstaking analysis of the accumulated observations and theories of previous observers and the deduction of tenable conclusions therefrom. In maintaining these conclusions, the writer also brings to bear his own studies and observations of many years. The book is remarkable in its painstaking care and diligent

¹ See bibliography for April.

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study of criminal life. Its conclusions, although we may not agree with all of them, are valuable, and are worthy of careful consideration, not only by scientists, but by prison officers, college professors, clergymen, superintendents of our public schools, and all others who have a part in shaping the moral or physical development of the rising generation. We do not know of any other single publication which gives so complete a review of the real attainments of the new science of criminal anthropology.

R. Brinkerhoff.

College
Courses in
Charity Work.

The fact that the managers of the New Bedford reformatory have made some effort to get college women to fill positions in that institution calls attention to the work that the colleges are doing to fit women for philanthropic and social service. Wellesley offers, among ten courses in economics and sociology, two that especially lead in this direction. The work is mainly academic—reading, class reports, and lectures—but effort is made to correlate the study with life, both by visits to institutions, tenement house neighborhoods, and so forth, and by occasionally getting persons actively at work to share their experience with the students.

The first half year is occupied with the subject that is sometimes called social pathology, sometimes charities and corrections. This is approached as a study of social classes, passing from the more to the less abnormal—studying first the criminal, then the vicious and intemperate, then the physically and mentally defective, and lastly the

pauperized and dependent, or partly dependent, especially children. The interrelation of these several classes is made evident. The historical development of methods of dealing with the problems thus presented is briefly reviewed, but attention is mainly fixed on questions of the origin and extent of these different modes of social failure and on modern aims and methods in treating them.

The work of the second half year is designed to supplement that of the first and to correct its necessary over-emphasis of abnormal conditions. If the first subject is social pathology, this is social hygiene. A study is made of the social needs of a modern community, especially the great city, and, for immediate example, Boston. The growth and composition of population, the effects of racial intermingling; housing conditions, and the relation of law, of public and private effort, and of transportation to their improvement; public health, the social significance of play and opportunities of play, education, and the popularization of culture and of higher standards, æsthetic, moral, and civic; the problem of the rural community—such are some of the problems taken up and illustrated by concrete examples.

Of course such study carries the student only to the threshold of real work. Her experience is still to be painfully acquired, but such a general survey of the field and of the mistaken and the successful experiments already made will help to a more efficient grasp of any special problem and will lessen the danger of falling into that attitude against which the charity worker must constantly be on guard—in which the woods can not be seen for the trees.

THE TWENTY-SEVENTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

The twenty-seventh national conference of charities and correction, held at Topeka, May 18-24, was attended by somewhat over three hundred registered delegates and visitors. Brief reports of the work of the conference are given below, and are followed by an announcement of the organization of the twenty-eighth conference, to be held at Washington next spring.

County and Municipal Charities.

The meetings of the section on county and municipal charities were devoted principally to a consideration of the causes of poverty and the care and relief of the poor in small cities and in rural districts. Professor Blackmar's paper on degeneration in rural districts provoked an interesting discussion. The paper showed that while the dangers of the city respecting social degeneration are greater than those of the country, there is not the difference usually accorded to them. There is a means of higher culture and evidences of greater degeneration in the city than in the country. The fresh air, sunshine, and ample space of the country cover a multitude of evils, and because of their scattered condition, and the imperfect means of combatting them, they receive less attention than do the evils of the city. Professor Blackmar enu-

merated the important causes of degeneration in small towns and rural districts as follows: first, lack of proper police force; second, bad sanitation; third, isolation; fourth, improper means of education; fifth, improper religious instruction; sixth, unwise philanthropy; seventh, bad punitive and judicial systems; and, finally, inducements to vagrancy. It was shown in what way degeneration takes place through these causes. Professor Blackmar held that the beginnings of crime, pauperism, and degeneration are apparently insignificant, but that if the inward flow of these great evils was to be stopped, reformers must give their attention to small things and work on the basis of prevention rather than on the basis of cure. In the normal society, measures may be taken to stamp out and destroy influences which, if left alone, will lead to social degeneration. The pollution of a boy's imagination through the recital of vulgar stories by workmen on the farm or the loafer at the village grocery may not only ruin the individual, but start social degeneration. A more vigorous control of these elements was advocated. The prevention of the bad matrimonial alliances which occur so frequently in rural towns and country districts, was favored. Better police force, universal industrial education, revival

of practical religious work, the organization of all charities to prevent indiscriminate aid in rural districts, improvement of sanitation, development of the normal social life, and the destruction, through wholesome amusements, of the results of isolation were urged.

Some of the remedies suggested in the discussion were the use of traveling libraries, the making of good roads, village improvement societies with local flower and fruit shows and prizes for the best gardens, the organization of women's clubs, and social settlements.

The discussion by Mrs. E. E. Williamson of housing problems in small cities developed the fact that improper housing is a serious evil in all manufacturing cities, and even in small towns, and that in many places there are no local ordinances regulating sanitary provisions or to prevent overcrowding. In a large number of the smaller cities building inspectors are unknown. It was also stated that, even where cities have established a health code and regulations as to buildings, the local authorities fail to make any adequate appropriation for the enforcement of the regulations. It was suggested that the charity organization societies can do a useful work in small cities by creating a public sentiment for the enforcement of proper provisions to prevent overcrowding and unsanitary conditions.

Mr. Frederic Almy's paper on outdoor relief, Miss Mary V. Clark's paper on almshouses, and one by Commissioner of labor W. L. A.

Johnston on poor farms and pauperism in Kansas, brought out a discussion of all phases of public relief of the poor. It would seem that the care of the property involved in poor farms in Kansas takes precedence over the welfare of the dependent inmates, and commercialism was said to enter into the operation and management of many of the asylums. Some of the farms are operated directly by the county, while others are leased to persons designated superintendents, the inmates being maintained by contract. It was made clear, however, in the discussion that the evils which were shown to be prevalent in Kansas are equally common in many other states.

The thought emphasized in the meetings of this section was that the prevention of pauperism and constructive social work in all its departments is a matter of vital concern in small communities as well as in large cities. The "back country" was heard from at the Topeka conference most effectively. Though the point of view differed from that generally taken by social students, the perspective was found to be unchanged.

The Feeble-Minded and Epileptic. In the report of this section three classes were distinguished: the epileptic, the feeble-minded or mentally deficient, and the backward. The latter, i. e., backward children, are not necessarily mentally deficient, but, handicapped by sluggish sense organs or in some other way, not as yet thoroughly understood, are hin-

dered in their mental awakening, and have little less than normal possibilities if properly drawn out, which is the essence of all true education. Such children should not be classed with the dependent, and they are now very properly and very largely being provided for in several cities by a special department of the public school system, notably that of Providence, R. I.

Considerable discussion was provoked by the question of separation of the epileptic from the feeble-minded proper. The advocates of such separation claimed that congregation of these classes interferes with everything but custodial care, and greatly jeopardizes the success of special treatment. Those who favored placing these two classes together pleaded chiefly economy of care and administration, and the better chances of obtaining appropriations for one colony or institution from the public purse than for two separate classes. The predominant thought seemed to be in favor of separation of the two classes, and of permanent sequestration in colonies that might be made nearly self-supporting, while preventing the propagation or self-perpetuation of a degenerate and undesirable class in society.

**Reformatories
and
Industrial
Schools.**

During the six days over which the meetings of this section extended, the subject of civil service rules in the selection of institution employes, and the fitness of political appointments to these positions cropped up frequently. A paper

was read upon the subject first mentioned by Superintendent W. S. Hancock, of Topeka. There was a unanimity of sentiment as to the civil service idea of appointment and promotion for merit alone, but the idea of appointment on the basis of some arbitrary examination in which the judgment of the responsible person or superior officer has no place met with no favor at all. There was no defense of the system of appointing officers to positions requiring special fitness on account of their political affiliations and services. Even the representatives of Kansas, which experiences a complete change in her public service with every change in the political complexion of the state, had nothing to say in favor of this policy.

The question of giving superintendents exclusive authority to hire and discharge employes was discussed by Superintendent J. W. Brown, of Red Wing, Minn. Inasmuch as superintendents are held responsible for the results of their institutions, it was felt that they should have actual authority for employment and discharge, although there might very properly be supervision by their boards of control as regards appointment, the superintendents making recommendations and the boards approving or disapproving of these. It was agreed that the power to discharge should rest wholly in the hands of the superintendent if efficiency is to be attained in the institution's affairs.

A review of twenty years' work in the development of reform work in

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the state of Indiana by Superintendent T. J. Charlton, showed that pronounced advance has been made in the character of industrial schools. He was followed by Superintendent F. H. Nibecker, who demonstrated that the most important advances which have been made in this work during the time covered by the discussion were due to the idea of development and education having become dominant.

In a discussion regarding industrial training for girls, the prevailing sentiment seemed to be in favor of teaching domestic occupations, with dressmaking and millinery, and such similar things as would take them into fields occupied exclusively by women. There was some little sentiment expressed in favor of teaching trades or professions like bookkeeping and stenography.

The last meeting of this section considered the advantages of some marking system by which absolute records could be kept of the conduct of pupils, so that there might be a true judgment formed of their character and development. While there was a great diversity of methods shown, still it was evident that at the present time there are very few schools in which the old method of depending in large degree upon personal impressions in judging pupils' characters and their fitness for release still exists. It was a matter of some surprise to find that in some institutions, where a system of demerits is employed, pupils are classified on their entrance according to the causes of their commit-

ment, and those committed for more serious offences are given a much larger number of demerits to work off than those committed for other offences. This practice was strongly deprecated by most of those present, and those pursuing such a practice were urged to consider that they were doing the very thing against which all those interested in schools for delinquents have been working for many years, i. e., giving them a penal character, and taking cognizance of the action of the pupil before coming to the school as determining a fixed character in the pupil, whereas it has been contended for a long time that the causes of commitment of delinquents are mere accidents of circumstance and not indications of a fixed nature in the child.

A resolution was passed by the section of great importance as defining the position to be taken by superintendents on the question of giving recommendations to those leaving their employ. In this it was declared that it is the sentiment of the section that superintendents should not give written recommendations to those leaving their institutions, but should, where the subject was deserving, give the privilege of free reference.

Some surprise was developed when the question of a proportionate representation of the work of the section in the annual proceedings of the conference was taken up. A committee having been appointed for the purpose of looking into the matter, and making such representa-

tions as were deemed advisable, discovered, it seems, that it had been determined that the matter furnished by the section should not become part of the printed records. This committee was continued to make such communication to the executive committee of the conference as should seem best calculated to correct what appears like a very grave injustice.

We are not familiar with the details of the publication of the annual proceedings, but the difficulties of reducing the bulky discussion of the conference to a compass consistent with reasonable cost of publication is readily appreciable. The solution, however, certainly ought not to lie in the exclusion, *in toto*, or nearly so, of the discussions of any section of the conference. If a suggestion might be made in this connection, it would be that instead of the publication in full of a selected number of the papers of the conference, to the necessary exclusion of other papers and much of the discussion following the papers, there might be substituted a very careful brief synopsis of each of the papers read, and a much fuller résumé of the discussions than is possible under the present plan. Such a plan would involve stenographic service for every section of the conference, or else very faithful work on the part of some member thoroughly familiar with the work of each section. But whatever the additional expense or labor involved it is certainly worth while, if the thought of the conference may be made more available thereby.

A striking feature of the work of this section, and one which might advantageously be taken up by all the sections of the conference, was the devotion of one meeting to a consideration of how best to develop the work of the section and to interest the largest possible number of those who have attained some knowledge and skill in prosecuting the work of the education of delinquent children.

The Organization of Charity.

At the general session on the subject of charity organization the report of the committee was read by Mr. John M. Glenn of Baltimore, in the absence of the chairman, Mr. C. S. Grout of Indianapolis. Following this was a paper by Mr. George S. Wilson of Washington, D. C., on "outdoor relief in relation to charity organization." The paper argued for the abolition of public outdoor relief and advocated a very close co-operation between the general relief agency and the charity organization society. For the smaller cities, of ten thousand or less, it was suggested that possibly the functions of the charity organization society and the relief society should be combined in one organization. The paper urged that these smaller cities, especially in the newer country of the northwest, should seek as soon as possible to abolish the system of public outdoor relief, before it becomes so strongly entrenched as it has in many of the older communities.

Following the paper was a general discussion on the question of public outdoor relief, opened by Mr. Fred-

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eric Almy. Mr. Almy presented a thoughtful paper dealing with the subject in great detail and giving the experiences of many cities in the United States. He endeavored to show that even under the best system of administration public outdoor relief was undesirable. This paper was followed by an interesting and vigorous discussion.

In the section meetings the subjects considered were "charity organization principles applied to mission work," by Rev. C. N. Pond, of Oberlin, Ohio; "compulsory education in its relation to the charity problem," by Perry N. Hiser, Indianapolis, and "development of the individual," by W. C. Smallwood, of Minneapolis. Several ministers took part in the discussion on mission work. It was interesting to hear from them to what an extent the clergy realize the danger of relief giving by church missionaries. There was an almost unanimous opinion in favor of the absolute divorcement of relief giving from religious work. Mr. Hiser's paper showed the importance of active co-operation between the truant officer and the charity organization society, and urged the importance of the selection of proper persons as truant officers. The subject was a new one for discussion in this section and it proved to be most interesting. The paper by Mr. Smallwood urged the absolute necessity of directing all philanthropic work with a view to building up character, if the work is to prove permanently helpful. It emphasized the importance not only of friendly

visitors, but of high qualifications in agents and secretaries of charity organization societies, bearing in mind at all times the importance of the development of character in the individuals with whom they were brought in contact. The paper was followed by a discussion covering the general field of preventive and constructive work. It was pointed out that not only should the "friendly visitor," technically so-called, endeavor to up-build and reconstruct the family life on a higher plane, but that this object should be kept in view by all workers among the poor, whether paid investigators, relief agents, or church workers. In all of the section meetings the freest discussion was had, and many points of detail in the actual workings of charity organization societies were debated and criticised to the advantage of the members of the section.

**Politics in
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Correctional
Affairs.**

The report of this committee was read by Professor F. W. Blackmar, of the university of Kansas.

"Politics," as used in the discussion of the section, refers to the interference of partisan politics with the scientific management of charitable and penal institutions. The report insisted that all such institutions should be under the management, control, and conduct of persons especially adapted by natural endowment and specific training for the service rendered. It recognized the management of inmates of such institutions as a science, or rather a high combination of science and art.

Consequently scientific knowledge and training in the art of management with special adaptability for the work were the only satisfactory tests for the equipment of persons serving in such institutions. The report recited the sudden changes that take place in officers and attendants, frequently every two years, or less, and the direful results arising from this perpetual change. Also it showed the evil results of appointing incompetent persons to take charge of the wards of the community. It urged special preparation of persons for their particular service, holding this to be as important as special preparation for medicine, law, education, or other professions. It was held that whenever institutions were insufficient to give such instruction, coupled with practical experimentation and practice in institutions, the state should take steps to provide a school of special training for this work.

The report advocated a rational civil service reform, or else a voluntary non-partisan process by which boards of control should be non-partisan, state boards having power to select the best persons in the country to fill the positions and the power to continue them therein. The committee advocated the extension of greater power and responsibility to superintendents of institutions and the exercise of greater care in their selection.

The report met with hearty response by the members of the conference, and especially by the citizens of Kansas in attendance. In

the discussions which followed various plans and methods were proposed for the elimination of partisan politics in charitable and correctional affairs.

The Care of the Insane.

The general subject of public policy in caring for the insane was discussed by Rev. Samuel G. Smith, of St. Paul, Dr. B. D. Eastman, of Topeka, and Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts. The opening discussion was an outline of three questions: Who shall pay the bills for the care of the insane? By what methods shall their care be conducted? By what agencies can these methods be made most effective? The main doctrines of the papers and the discussion may be summed up as follows: The chronic side of the question can best be solved where the family, the county or parish, and the state share in the expenses. On the question of methods it was stated that the ideal plan would be to find out how to do most for the unfortunate and at the same time make the economic burden upon the community as light as possible. It was held that this ideal was really practicable. No disease yields to speedy treatment, it was asserted, more surely than incipient insanity, and it is of prime importance that the patient shall be treated as early as possible. The detention hospital is, therefore, necessary, but after insanity has continued for one or two years the case becomes hopeless so far as direct medical treatment is concerned. It therefore follows that the wisest economy involves the most generous

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expense during the first year or two of the malady. Individual treatment of the acute insane is as necessary as for pneumonia or any other disease. The therapeutic value of work for patients was strongly insisted upon.

The prevention of insanity is only possible through the care and training of children. Where the neurotic diathesis is manifest, parents should be warned of the danger. The family physician has great responsibilities in the matter, and should have far greater knowledge both of the theory and practice of mental and nervous diseases.

Dr. Smith asserted that, in the opinion of the best alienists, more than sixty per cent of recoveries might be secured. This statement amounts to an indictment that fully one-half the burden of the chronic insane is due to inefficient treatment in our hospitals. Any system of care was thought to be better than the classical method of building an institution in block, making it a huge prison palace. It was asserted that no superintendent of an institution with one or two thousand patients could possibly perform the executive duties of such a position, and at the same time have either time or strength for the special study of insanity.

The state of Pennsylvania was congratulated upon having adopted the system of the care of the chronic insane in small asylums, under the supervision of the state. The state of Minnesota has recently built two institutions for chronic insane which

are wholly maintained and controlled by the state.

As in some previous years, owing to a conflict of dates of meeting, very few superintendents of hospitals for the insane were present, most of these doubtless attending the meeting of the American medico-psychological association.

Jail's and Workhouses.

The report of this committee, after reviewing the present condition of jails, lockups, and workhouses in the United States with reference to their security, safety from fire, sanitary arrangements, lack of separation, light, and ventilation, recommended that, pending a more thorough reformation, local sentiment should be created to provide for perfect sanitation, including heat, light, sewerage, and immunity from fire, with separation of the sexes, and of the young from the old offender, this separation to be both of sight and sound. The report recommended a continued revision of the legal code regarding misdemeanors and felonies, including the adoption of a probation system instead of the usual method of short terms of imprisonment. The report urged further the employment of prisoners in local jails, the establishment of juvenile courts in cities, proper truancy laws, and the direct prohibition of youthful offenders from imprisonment in jail. Another desired reform is a legal supervision of lockups and jails, with a legal method of adopting plans and condemning unsanitary or improper jails. Finally, the committee favored the abolishment of

the county jail and local workhouse, and the establishment of prisons under state control with provision for such variety and kind of employment at all seasons of the year as shall be educational and disciplinary, in order that the prisoner, when discharged, may be able to earn an honest living and be disposed to do it.

Mr. James F. Jackson discussed jail management, making a strong argument in favor of the complete separation of prisoners, and the conserving of the morals of the prisoner temporarily confined. The importance of absolute separation was forcibly illustrated. Mr. Jackson urged frequent inspection of the premises, a proper censoring of the reading matter, and the establishment of careful rules of conduct of prisoners and for the management of local prisons by the officers in charge.

Mr. C. M. Finch, of St. Louis, addressed the conference from the standpoint of the jail builder, making the point that jail builders, in their efforts to secure absolute security, acquire patents on details of jail construction, which necessitate that they be properly protected when bidding for the construction of new jails. Where bidding must be upon jail plans with specifications submitted by county officials, it is difficult for holders of particular patents to enter into competition except by unbusinesslike methods, and the speaker suggested that competitive bidders be allowed to submit their plans and specifications,

from which the governing board may select the best bid after examination of all plans.

State Boards and Commissions.

The chairman of the committee on state boards and commissions, Mr. Leontine Lincoln, of Massachusetts, in his report made the point that charity, whether prosecuted from religious duty, political expediency, or philanthropic motive, was not effective and intelligent in its results until treated as essentially an economic question. The state, as the natural guardian of the delinquent, defective, and dependent classes, should see that they have the best care which their condition and necessities require. Its duty, on the other hand, to the industrious, the competent, and the thrifty, requires it to see that this is done with the least burden to them consistent with such care. Providing institutions of care and agencies for the distribution of its bounty is not the end of the state's duty. Protection alike to those who receive, those who administer, and those who provide demands the provision of a strong central authority with power to inspect, to investigate, to supervise, to co-ordinate activities, to furnish all needed information, and to attest results.

The first state board, that of Massachusetts, was not established until 1863. To-day twenty-five states have state boards or commissions, with varying functions of supervision or control. The tendency is to enlarge rather than to restrict the power of these boards.

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A tendency is also observable to favor a division and specialization of the work of boards, as well as to enlarge their powers. This is seen in the separate boards of charity, insanity, and prisons of both New York and Massachusetts. From the first, these boards have been divided into two general classes: advisory boards, with authority to inspect and recommend, and boards of control, with full executive powers. Few, however, belong exclusively to either class.

Boards are expected to report first and principally on what is considered of special interest and importance in their own respective states, but there are certain statistics of great value for purposes of comparison and for national use which will readily suggest themselves to the student of sociology, the tax-payer, and the legislator, for which it is desirable that some uniform plan of report should be agreed upon.

Rev. Samuel G. Smith, of Minnesota, and Mr. L. G. Kinne, of Iowa, discussed the functions of state boards as worked out in the experience of their respective states. The balance of opinion seems to favor the plan of a board of volunteer members rather than state boards of control, such as that of Iowa. The latter state, it was considered, was unusually fortunate in the personnel of its board, and some doubt was expressed regarding the possibility of securing in all instances a board of this kind of equal character to that maintained on the average by advisory boards composed of volunteer members.

Prisons and Reformatories.

The last day of the conference was devoted to a visit to Leavenworth, and an inspection of the state prison, the national soldiers' home, and the United States prison. A brief session was held at the soldiers' home, at which the report of the section was read by Major R. W. McClaghry, and followed by some discussion.

Organization of State Conferences.

A significant feature of the conference was the social influence of its presence in Kansas. During the session, state conferences of charities and correction were organized both in Missouri and Kansas. The latter has commenced under the most favorable auspices, and hopes to do effective work, not only in the state in general, but in the counties, towns, and rural districts.

Organization of the Conference for 1901.

The organization of the conference for the meeting at Washington next year developed a discussion which perhaps may prove to have been the most significant feature of the Topeka meeting. A general dissatisfaction having been expressed in many quarters regarding the present classification of the conference work into sections which frequently overlap one another, and not infrequently fail to cover some work which should be considered, the suggestion was made that the sections be divided hereafter according to some more fruitful classification; for instance, that adopted by the REVIEW in its series of historical studies of American philanthropy. The committee on organization, after considering

the matter, adopted in a measure the classification of the REVIEW, but, apparently in an attempt to be duly conservative, omitted some portions of the proposed classification, and substituted one or two sections which seemed to it better adapted for the purposes of conference discussion. A curious result is the entire omission, so far as we can see, of any specific place for the discussion of the problems peculiar to supervisory bodies, such as the state boards of charity. Possibly the committee considers that the work of such bodies falls properly somewhere else in its classification. If so, we are unable to discover it. At some time later in the year we may take up this question of scientific classification of the work of the conference as a *sine qua non* of progressive discussion, and how far the classification adopted for the next conference fulfills the ideals of such a classification. We shall also have something to say about the customary disregard in making up each year's program of what was said and accomplished at the previous annual meeting of the conference.

The list of officers and committees for 1901 follows:

President: John M. Glenn, Baltimore.

Vice-presidents: Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore; T. J. Charlton, Plainfield, Ind.; Michel Heymann, New Orleans.

General secretary: Hastings H. Hart, 79 Dearborn street, Chicago.

Assistant secretaries: Charles P. Keliogg, Waterbury; George S. Wilson, Washington; Grace Johnston, Red Wing, Minn.; Carl Kelsey, Chi-

cago; C. M. Hubbard, Cincinnati; Philip W. Ayres, New York city.

Treasurer: Alfred O. Crozier, Grand Rapids.

Official reporter and editor: Isabel C. Barrows, Dorchester, Mass.

Executive committee: Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago; Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, Elizabeth, N. J.; Herbert W. Lewis, Washington; Joseph P. Byers, Columbus; Thomas M. Mulry, New York city; Samuel M. Lindsay, Philadelphia; James F. Jackson, St. Paul.

Reports from states: Hastings H. Hart, Chicago; Edwin Snyder, Oskaloosa, Kan.; Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury.

Care of feeble-minded and epileptics: William A. Polglase, Lapceer, Mich.; George H. Knight, Lakeville, Conn.; Owen Copp, Boston; Wm. P. Letchworth, Portage, N. Y.; A. C. Rogers, Faribault, Minn.; William P. Spratling, Sonyea, N. Y.

The insane: George F. Keene, Providence; Peter M. Wise, New York city; J. H. Stout, Menominee, Wis.; Edward N. Brush, Baltimore; L. G. Kinne, Des Moines; A. B. Richardson, Washington; — Mills, Kalamazoo, Mich.; C. E. Riggs, St. Paul.

The treatment of the criminal: Charlton T. Lewis, Morristown, N. J.; John W. Willis, St. Paul; R. W. McClaughry, Leavenworth; Z. R. Brockway, Elmira; J. H. Harris, Washington; Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, Ohio; C. L. Stonaker, Denver; J. G. Thorp, Cambridge, Mass.

Dependent and neglected children: Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis; Timothy D. Hurley, Chicago; Mary Willcox Brown, Baltimore; Lilian C. Streeter, Concord, N. H.; C. D. Randall, Coldwater, Mich.; H. W. Cowan, Denver; C. E. Faulkner, Minneapolis; Lyman P. Alden, Terre Haute; Kate P. Burlew, Washington; Hugh F. Fox, Bayonne, N. J.

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Juvenile reformatories and industrial schools: Edwin P. Wentworth, Portland, Me.; Mrs. L. U. DeBolt, Chillicothe, Mo.; Sherman Smith, Whittier, Cal.; Elizabeth Clohan, Salem, W. Va.; C. Dewey Hilles, Lancaster, Ohio.

Care and treatment of needy families in their homes: Zilpha D. Smith, Boston; Charles F. Weller, Chicago; R. Fulion Cutting, New York city; Charles A. Ellwood, Lincoln, Neb.; Charles C. Cole, Washington; Frances Greeley Curtis, Boston; Arthur W. Gutridge, St. Paul; John R. Carey, Baltimore; J. M. Hanson, Kansas City; E. Carrington, Colorado Springs.

Legislation concerning charities: William W. Folwell, Minneapolis; Frederick H. Wines, Washington; Wm. P. Lyon, Madison, Wis.; Charles Moore, Detroit; Frank W. Blackmar, Lawrence, Kan.; Frank B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.; C. B. Denson, Raleigh; Ephraim Banning, Chicago; Robert W. Heberd, Albany; Clarence F. Law, New Orleans.

Division of work between public and private charities: Frank A. Fetter,

Palo Alto, Cal.; Homer Folks, New York city; Jacob H. Hollander, Porto Rico; Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne; Levi L. Barbour, Detroit; Rev. Henry Hopkins, Kansas City; Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore; Rev. Thos. L. Kinkead, Peekskill, N. Y.; Philip C. Garrett, Philadelphia.

Constructive social work: Jane Addams, Chicago; Joseph Lee, Boston; Susan F. Wharton, Philadelphia; Lawrence Veiller, New York city; Simon Sternberg, Washington; Robert A. Woods, Boston; William F. Blackman, New Haven; Mary D. Anderson, Louisville; Rev. W. S. Rainsford, New York city.

Corresponding secretaries: It was recommended that the conference refer the selection of corresponding secretaries from the several states to the general secretary, with power to act, all suggestions from the states being placed in the secretary's hands for his assistance and guidance; and that the secretary be authorized to add corresponding secretaries from neighboring countries, and from the new island possessions.

THE CARE OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY HOMER FOLKS.

IX.—PRESENT TENDENCIES.

The experience of the century and the increasing study given to child-saving work during the past twenty-five years might naturally be expected to result in more or less clearly defined tendencies toward the wider adoption of some methods and the modification or rejection of others.

Through the free competition which has prevailed, or, if that phrase sounds harsh as applied to charities, through the unrestricted opportunity for each system to demonstrate its inherent tendencies and to secure its natural and logical results, certain methods should by this time have shown their fitness to survive. Are we able at

the close of the century to see any evidence pointing toward the general adoption of certain methods?

As to governmental agencies, the facts are evident. As between state and county, city, or town systems, the state plan is far in the lead. No states are now establishing a series of local or county homes for children. It is doubtful whether any one of the three states that have county children's homes would choose this plan if they were now for the first time establishing their system. The increasing effectiveness of state supervision over the county homes, approximating in some cases actual control, suggests the probability of state management in the not distant future. This would certainly be followed, sooner or later, by a sharp reduction in the number of the institutions.

The real contest, if such it may be called, will be between the state and the contract or subsidy systems. To put it plainly, the question now being decided is this,—is our public administration sufficiently honest and efficient to be intrusted with the management of a system for the care and training of destitute, neglected, and wayward children, or must we turn that branch of public service over to private charitable corporations, leaving to public officials the functions of paying the bills, and of exercising such supervision over the workings of the plan as may be possible? Each of these plans finds new advocates and wider adoption yearly. Strongly contrasted in spirit and method, and, in any one state, almost mutually exclusive, it seems

certain that one plan or the other will, by a process of gradual selection, gain the ascendancy, and become distinctively, though probably not exclusively, the American system of caring for children who become public charges. Which it shall be only the twentieth century can tell. Each plan has powerful advocates, and each has behind it some of the most powerful forces in American social and political life.

There are some indications that the state system will prevail. No state that has adopted it has abandoned it, nor in any state in which a state system has been actually established has there been any movement in favor of its abandonment or serious modification. On the other hand the contract or subsidy system seems to be everywhere in a state of unstable equilibrium. Opposed as it undoubtedly is to the natural instincts of great bodies of American people, and containing in itself tendencies to an undue growth, which inevitably alarm many who are not opposed to it from principle, it everywhere arouses from time to time efforts for its better regulation, which, if they fail, one after another, lead to a demand, which in more than one case has prevailed, for its abolition. There is little reason for thinking that the subsidy plan will ever be wholly discontinued in all the states, but for the reasons above stated it seems likely that it will not make much further progress, and that it may be discontinued in some localities in which it is at present strongly rooted.

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systems are likely to take, there undoubtedly is a growing tendency to create a strong central state unsalaried board of several members, having to deal only with children's work; to vest in this body the custody of all children in the state who are public charges; and to leave the board free in a large measure to work out the best system for caring for the children, through temporary institutions, boarding-out, and placing-out. After all, the essential difference between the Massachusetts state system and the Michigan plan is simply that, for the temporary care of children, the latter uses an institution, while the former uses boarding-out. In both plans the placing of children in free permanent homes is the chief feature. Already there are evidences that the Michigan, Minnesota, and other similar institutions are finding a limitation of their plan, evidenced by the gradual accumulation of children who are not available for placing in free homes, such as crippled, unattractive, slightly diseased, and other cases. These must either accumulate in the institution, as seems to be the case in Minnesota, or be returned to counties and refused admission to the state school, as is the case in Michigan, where already there is a movement either to compel the state school to receive such cases or to create a new state institution for them. Many of these children could be placed in families at board, though not, for some time at least, in free homes. For this

reason, and also because as communities grow older the opportunities for placing children who are too old for legal adoption seem to grow less, it is likely that the state systems will gradually find it desirable, if not necessary, to place certain of their children in families with payment for board. Whether the state schools for dependent children will follow the example of the state of Massachusetts, and the city of Boston, in doing away with the temporary institution altogether is doubtful.

Several tendencies in the management of private charities for children are evident. The older orphan asylums are in some cases still conducted on nearly the same lines as when first organized, but among the newer institutions there is almost a general acceptance of the fact that orphans and children upon whom there is no valid parental claim are much better off if adopted by families and that to rear them in asylums until they are twelve, fourteen, or sixteen years of age is an expensive, wholly unnecessary, and seriously harmful, blunder. This sentiment found expression in the unanimous report of the committee on the care of destitute and neglected children to the national conference of charities and correction in 1899. The very general sentiment in favor of placing nearly all classes of dependent children in free homes in families is likely to lead to a more general adoption of the boarding-out plan by private charities, as the limitations of the plan of placing-out with-

out payment for board are more clearly perceived, and as such limitations become more pronounced as communities grow older.

In the institutional care of all classes of children, the cottage plan has clearly proven its superiority to the congregate system. Those who continue to erect congregate dormitories, must be ready to apologize for them to the enlightened sentiment of the community.

The general movement in favor of industrial education leads naturally to a pronounced tendency to provide trade teaching in institutions for such of the older children as, for good and sufficient reasons, are retained. It is now seen, however, that this training is simply that which should be within the reach of all children, and that it can be offered to children living at home, or with other families, as easily as to those living in institutions. We are not likely to have any more institutions, founded for the express purpose of teaching trades, which make residence in the institution and support from its funds a necessary condition of receiving such instruction. Philanthropists who wish to further the cause of industrial education are more likely to follow the example of Pratt, Drexel, Armour, and Auchmuty, than that of Girard and Williamson. Such children as must be kept in institutions will be given every practicable opportunity for industrial training, but children will not be gathered into institutions for the purpose of giving them such training.

As to the division of the field between public agencies and private charities, little change is noticeable except an increasing tendency to regard the public authorities as the appropriate agencies to assume the care of children who are to be permanently separated from their families, and private charities as more particularly fitted to deal with those cases involving temporary assistance, or the care of children for whom some payment is made by a surviving parent. Associated charity, individual effort, and private funds have never done more for destitute children than at present. There need be no fear that they will be rendered unnecessary by the development of state systems.

Nor, unfortunately, does there seem to be any reason for thinking that charities for caring for destitute, neglected, and delinquent children will soon become unnecessary. We learn to deal more and more wisely with those who are in distress, but the forces which produce poverty, neglect, and crime, seem to be beyond our reach. The poor, the neglectful, and the vicious we shall have with us for a long time to come, and the hearts of the generous will continue to respond to the needs of suffering childhood, both through individual and associate charity, and through governmental action. There is ground for rational optimism, however, in the fact that, more and more, thought is added to kindness, and that as surely as experience and study bring fresh truths to light, so surely does the intelligent sentiment

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RELIEF AND CARE OF THE POOR IN THEIR HOMES.¹

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE,

Relief by Churches.

It is unnecessary to trace the beneficent and multifarious activities of the special and general relief societies of various types organized in recent years. Scarcely any city is without such private societies, and sometimes they are subsidized from the public treasury. Moreover, the churches engage to a greater or less extent in relief work, their funds for this purpose being placed either in the hands of paid visitors or of special church officers, such as deacons, although it not infrequently happens that it is thought best to organize a special committee or society within the church to discharge this duty. The protestant churches have not passed beyond this somewhat unorganized stage, nor have they usually reached the conclusion which would be the most sensible; i. e.,

to withdraw entirely from the province of material relief.

The Roman catholic church has developed within the past forty years a network of societies of laymen which have greatly simplified and improved the charitable activity of that church so far as it has to do with the care and relief of needy families. The society of St. Vincent de Paul owes allegiance to a council-general in Paris, but with the exception of ninety-two conferences in the three councils of Brooklyn, St. Louis, and New Orleans, the conferences in the United States are under the direction of what is known as the superior council of New York. There were in 1898 412 distinct conferences, with an active membership of 6,361. Their receipts and disbursements for relief were about \$180,000. While

¹ Synopsis of paper:

- i. Public relief.
- ii. The Quincy report, 1821.
- iii. The Yates report, 1824.
- iv. Private relief:
 - Associations for improving the condition of the poor.
 - Relief by churches.
 - Relief for special classes and conditions.
 - Relief by individuals.
 - Special agencies.
 - Employment bureaus.
 - Day nurseries.
 - Savings.
 - Dispensaries.
 - State boards of charity.

v. The charity organization movement:

- Investigation.
- Co-operation.
- Efficiency of help.
- No direct relief.
- Registration.
- Volunteer visitors.
- The district committee.

vi Present principles of relief administration:

- Relief and vagrancy.
- Widows with children.
- Relief in emergencies.
- The shiftless father.
- Widowers with children.
- Single women.
- Orphans.
- Momentary relief.

this is only a small part of the total amount given by the catholic church and its members to destitute families, it is of importance because of the progressive and enlightened manner in which the society is administered, and because it is supplemented by the volunteer personal services of the active members of the society, who pledge themselves to visit and to give religious and moral oversight to those under its care.

Extraordinary conditions in the Jewish communities of the chief centres of population, arising from the heavy immigration from eastern Europe, have made necessary liberal provision for the needs of destitute Hebrews. Of recent years the distribution of this relief has been systematized and in some instances greatly increased in amount. In several cities various societies have been consolidated into an organization known as the united Hebrew charities or the federation of Jewish charities. That in the city of New York has five constituent societies and sixteen co-operating societies and sisterhoods. It maintains an employment bureau, a medical and obstetrical service, provides regular monthly stipends aggregating between \$15,000 and \$20,000 per annum, occasional relief in money to the amount of nearly \$40,000; transportation amounting in 1898 to about \$10,000; clothing, shoes, furniture, etc., \$8,000; fuel, \$3,000. The cost of the medical service is a

little over \$8,000, and that of the burials nearly \$3,000. The total expenditures of the organization for the five years ending September 30, 1899, were: 1895, \$138,895.11; 1896, \$146,265.37; 1897, \$133,680.97; 1898, \$120,541.74; 1899, \$136,439.75.

Many of the recently arrived immigrants do not apply for relief, but for tools for their respective trades. These are to a large extent persons who, when economic conditions are favorable, eventually become self-supporting. In the summer of 1899 a careful study was made by the manager of the united Hebrew charities in New York city of 1,000 applicants who originally asked for assistance in the fall of 1894. This investigation showed that sixty per cent did not apply after that year; seventy-three per cent did not apply after 1895; eighty per cent after 1896; eighty-five per cent after 1897, and ninety-three per cent after 1899, leaving seven per cent of the original number still being assisted during the year 1899. Of 100 cases investigated, twelve per cent were found to be self-supporting, twenty-two per cent have removed from New York city, having been assisted originally with transportation, and sixty-six per cent could not be found and were doubtless to a large extent self-supporting. These figures demonstrate both the exceptional conditions under which Hebrew families have been compelled to ask for assistance and the ab-

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sence of a pauperizing effect in the aid given.

Perhaps the earliest protestant church charity which became permanent was the Boston "quarterly charity lecture," founded in 1720 by a few persons who held quarterly meetings on Sunday evenings for benevolent purposes, at which some member was invited to preach.¹ On March 6, 1720, Cotton Mather gave the first of these lectures of which there is a record. The meeting is now held annually. The collections made at this lecture and the income from two endowed funds, yielding from \$1,500 to \$1,800 annually, are distributed equally to four congressional churches, which dispense them according to the prevailing custom of the charitable organization of each church.

The proportion of destitute families among adherents of the Roman catholic and the Jewish faiths is larger than among the membership of protestant churches. To a large extent, however, the protestant churches have aided families whose connection with the church is a very shadowy one, consisting oftentimes merely of the attendance of children upon the Sunday school or even of proximity of residence.

St. George's protestant episcopal church in New York city disbursed in the year ending April 1, 1899, a poor fund amounting to \$2,400, besides which \$159 was subscribed for Thanksgiving dinners for the poor;

¹ Chapter on charities of Boston, by George Silsbee Hale in "Memorial history of Boston," p. 660.

a guild and employment society gave work through the winter to forty women, who were paid \$733.15; the helping hand society aided in providing hand sewing, as a result of which 852 garments were made by beneficiaries, and over \$400 additional was paid in wages and in the form of dry goods and groceries; a seaside cottage for summer excursionists, accommodating forty resident guests and from one to two hundred day excursionists at a time, was maintained for thirteen weeks, at a total expense of \$3,295.62, all of which was contributed in the Easter Sunday collection. The chief items in the disbursement of the poor fund proper were: to pensioners, \$420; to the sick, \$411.28; to the poor direct, through the clergy and deaconesses, \$325; medicine, \$180.86; orthopædic and other appliances, \$80.75; groceries, \$738.84 (of this amount, however, \$302.50 represents sales at low prices, and only the balance, \$436.34 donations); coal, \$48.35; meals and lodgings, \$3.70; rent, \$19; shoes, \$48.65. This amount was obtained chiefly from communion alms, in amounts varying from \$11.36 in September to \$202.01 in January. The number of families to whom groceries were given during the year was 166, and about an equal number made regular purchases.

In Trinity church of New York city and its eight chapels the appropriations for the poor, exclusive of

those for the maintenance of hospitals in which the parish is interested, amounted in 1899 to \$5,850.61. Of this, over \$1,000 was for burials, and \$631 for medical services to the poor of one of the chapels.

St. Bartholomew's parish, while distributing a poor fund of smaller amount, has an even larger number of special enterprises for the elevation and improvement of the poor. The poor fund for the year ending November 1, 1899, amounted to \$1,725.27, of which sum \$208.27 was from loans returned by beneficiaries. Except the sum of \$227.35, this amount may be said to have been expended in the charitable relief of needy families, though it was for a variety of purposes, including nursing and medical aid, clothing, funerals, rents, cash loans, and payments of fees in the employment bureau maintained by the same parish. Besides the poor fund, the parish disbursed through its visitor \$416 in the form of pensions; paid wages, etc., in the tailor shop, amounting to \$1,632.74, enabling the shop to give away or sell at moderate prices 1,248 garments. There was disbursed in fresh-air work \$2,000, and smaller sums in other special ways. This church maintains also a penny provident fund, in which there are 2,648 depositors, who saved in the current year the sum of \$1,844.82.

It would be difficult to find a more frank and eloquent confession of the perplexities involved in church relief than is contained in the two fol-

lowing paragraphs, from the report of one of the assistant ministers of this parish:

The never-ending stream of applicants for help in some form or other—sometimes in the way of employment, oftentimes in the way of direct and material aid in circumstances of poverty, sickness, and want—is a disheartening feature. It never seems to grow any less. All we do only relieves. All that is done everywhere by all churches and charitable agencies only seems to touch the surface and help temporarily. We do not seem to cure and remove the trouble. Here and there a case occurs probably where the good effect is permanent, but the trouble is deep-seated. It is both acute and chronic and may be expected, I suppose, to be always with us. It would be easier and lighter for us, however—less depressing and more endurable—if it were not for the tinge of unworthiness and imposture which runs so freely through it, leaving one often at a loss how to deal with it and exposing one to the charge, on the one hand, of being “soft” and “an easy mark” for fraud, or on the other hand, of being hard-hearted, unsympathetic, and unchristian.

One wonders sometimes whether there may not be a measure of truth in the latter charge, such is the damaging effect of the frequent contact with the revelations of human nature's weakness and wickedness, and one is sometimes compelled to acknowledge the truth of the former charge by the actual results of an attempt to be charitable.

These are three of the churches in which the amounts contributed for the purpose of helping the poor in

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their own homes are probably larger than in most other protestant churches, and they are therefore not typical either in amount or in kind of the average work done by the churches as such. A more representative work is that of a prosperous and active presbyterian church in the city of Philadelphia, whose membership, while it does not contain any considerable number of the poor, does embrace an unusually large number of citizens who are leaders in educational, social, and philanthropic activities. It is reported that the total relief fund of this church does not exceed \$300 or \$400, and that this is largely in the form of loans which are repaid. Whether the money is loaned or given, it is chiefly used for the purchase of fuel in winter. There are no regular pensioners.

In reply to a letter asking for information as to how a modest presbyterian chapel in New York cared for the needy families in its membership and parish, the former pastor now editor of an important church periodical, writes:

The deacons look after the church members. Two men visit those who are reported to them by the pastor and missionaries and pay rent or supply fuel or food when necessary. One blind woman, a member, has had her rent paid and, in the winter, receives a ton and sometimes a ton and a half of coal. The city also gives her a sum varying from \$30 to \$50 a year, according to the number of applicants for the special fund set apart each year. She is the only

one who is helped without a return being made for the money given. When a member applied for aid and was found to be in need of assistance, scrubbing or window cleaning was required to be done in the chapel, that pauperization might be avoided. We did our best to secure employment for the men and boys, and often the family were put on their feet in this way. At Thanksgiving time the teacher of one of the Bible classes and another gentleman sent turkeys or chickens to about twenty families, but this often made hard feeling, for those who received the gift boasted of it and those who received nothing became angry, and the size of the fowls was often compared. At Christmas time a friend sent a barrel with vegetables and several fowls, which were sent to the most needy families, the members being supplied first and then those who simply attended the services. Very often Sunday-school children could not attend for lack of shoes or clothing. A Dorcas closet supplied their wants in part; for these garments and shoes no return was made.

During the hard winter of 1893-4, a relief work committee, three stations of which were in the chapel, helped scores of needy families, irrespective of membership or church attendance at our chapel or elsewhere.

As you may know, we had a protest at the charity organization society and the association for improving the condition of the poor against any chapel member or family being helped until I had been informed. This was done in part to prevent duplication; but deeper than that was the feeling that I should support my own child; if I can not, my relatives should; if they can not, my

friends should, before an appeal is made to private or public charities. So every church or its denomination should free the lists of public and private charities of every church member and thus fulfill the law of Christ, enabling those who are poor to be the blessing that they can become to their more prosperous brethren, and allowing the man or woman not needing relief to receive that blessing which is promised to those who relieve the poor and needy, the sick and helpless ones. As a child may need my aid after all has been done that can be done by his parents, relatives, and friends, so church people in addition to caring for their own should aid those who have no church home—those who are only God's poor.

A methodist episcopal church, whose membership embraces a large number of families of very limited means, disburses in a year relief amounting to \$250. This is given to five families, three of whom are on the regular list, while the remaining two are intermittent recipients. Except in an unusual emergency this church never gives more than \$1 per week per family, and with one exception this aid is given only after work of equivalent value has been performed. The exception is in the case of a cripple who is the support of an invalid mother. The work which she does making buttonholes on vests consumes so much of her time and strength that the church does not feel justified in asking her to do any work for the \$1 a week given to her. Save in the case just mentioned the beneficiaries are all

widows with small children. Four of the five are members of the congregation; the other has no church connection.

These churches would not include the giving of Thanksgiving and Christmas dinners in their statement of relief disbursements, as these are intended as social courtesies rather than as relief. They are frequently given to families which have not reached the point of needing relief, and generally in such a way as not to reveal the source of the donation. The pastors and officials of many churches would now disavow any intention of making the church a relief agency, and the churches generally are becoming solicitous that their own members as well as possible applicants who are not communicants shall understand that churches do not exist primarily for this purpose. It becomes their policy to report original applications for relief from outsiders to the charitable societies, and, so far as their own members are concerned, to anticipate destitution by persuading those who are likely to become dependent to make use of agencies for saving, or otherwise to prevent the need for outside help.

Here and there throughout the country a few pastors will be found who take the advanced but entirely tenable position that the churches are intended only for worship and for religious fellowship, not for the supply of material needs. The relief fund has given way to outside or

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affiliated agencies for the promotion of thrift, temperance, and education. Other churches, such as those already described, without going so far as to abolish relief, have introduced discrimination and personal service as its allies, have enlisted volunteer corps of workers, where necessary have employed professional visitors, and have willingly exchanged information with other churches and with relief societies regarding families who may be known to others besides themselves. To a considerable extent, however, the churches and religious societies pursue an antiquated and short-sighted policy, giving relief from sentimental motives without personal knowledge of its effect upon those who receive it, and oftentimes in the hope that possible converts may be attracted through this means. This criticism applies with peculiar force to missions, posts of the salvation army, and other similar organizations which aim to reach the outcast and the neglected, and is defended on the ground that in no other way can they gain the attention and the confidence of those whom they would rescue. The most encouraging aspect of the system, or lack of system, among the churches in their care of needy families is that there is everywhere dissatisfaction with the results, and, if there is also unwillingness to adopt better methods, because of a traditional feeling that they are necessarily bound up with harshness and an uncharitable spirit, this should prove to be only a

transitional stage, to be succeeded either by associated and intelligent sympathy and progressive relief methods, or by a division of work with relief societies.

**Relief for
Special Classes
and Condi-
tions.**

Besides the churches and the general relief societies there are numerous agencies for the care and relief of needy families, which rest upon a national or special basis. Some of these, as has already been explained, date from the last century or the beginning of the present. Others, however, have been founded recently. Their benefits are sometimes restricted to members and their families, with only such response to appeals from outsiders as would be given by any mutual benefit society not intended for general relief. Others, deriving their financial support from membership fees and the contributions of the charitable, are intended to aid families of a particular nationality or belonging to a specified class. An illustration of the latter is the Armenian benevolent association of Boston, formed for the purpose of helping Armenians within ten miles of Boston, securing employment, caring for the sick, and giving material aid to the needy. As illustrations of the former, may be mentioned the beneficial association of the Maryland line, with headquarters in Baltimore, which besides being a mutual benefit association of ex-confederate soldiers, also relieves the needs of sick and destitute families of ex-confederates in Maryland, and aids to bury the dead; and the Italian benevolent

society of New York, which although stating its general objects to be for the relief of sick and needy Italians, to improve their moral and physical condition, to assist immigrants, and to form colonies in different parts of the country, finds it necessary in practice to limit its benefits, to a large extent, to its own members and their friends.

In New York city nearly every nationality is represented by a society, which, as a rule, aids residents, provides transportation in suitable cases for those who seek to return to their own homes, and to some extent aids recent immigrants to find employment. In Boston fourteen relief agencies for various nationalities are now in existence, besides seventy-six mutual benefit societies for special races or nationalities. Most notable among agencies of this kind is the Baron de Hirsch fund with headquarters in New York, which is amply endowed and does not depend upon current contributions. The object of this fund is to Americanize and assimilate the immigrants, by teaching them to become good citizens and to prevent, by all proper means, their congregating in large cities. It furnishes mechanics with tools; teaches easily acquired trades or the knowledge of the use of tools; pays entrance fees into trade unions; loans small sums in exceptional cases to help to self-support, but does not give direct charitable relief. It does, however, provide transportation to points where it is absolutely known there is a market for the par-

ticular kind of laborers to be sent. It establishes day and night schools for children and adults, when the local authorities and private organizations have failed to make such provision, wherein are taught the elementary branches of English, including a knowledge of the constitution of the United States, and the inculcation of improved sanitary habits.

**Relief by
Individuals.**

Private charity does not embody itself completely in relief societies. While organized agencies necessarily absorb attention in a historical survey, since it is possible to trace them, it must not be forgotten that the aid extended by private individuals to those in distress is of vast amount in the aggregate, although the fact that it is so often unrecorded leaves it largely outside the scope of the student of past or current relief agencies. Says Mr. George Silsbee Hale in the "memorial history of Boston:"

There is, there can be, no record of the work and gifts of generous stewards of the abundance which has rewarded lives of labor; of men whom the living recall, the steady stream of whose annual beneficence was a king's ransom; of those whom the living know, whose annual gifts are an ample fortune; or of the "honorable women" whose lives are full of good deeds and almsgiving. It seems only an injustice to the living and the dead of a community, which has had, and still has, such men and women among its members, to attempt a record necessarily so imperfect.

In a foot-note to the above passage the author quotes from the

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diary and correspondence of Amos Lawrence an estimate that between 1807 and 1829 this private citizen of Boston expended in systematic charity for the benefit of his fellow men some \$700,000, and says:

It is hardly necessary to add that this sum was much greater in value then than now, and that large fortunes are both larger and more numerous; but it may be added that the living rival this munificence and exceed it in amount. We are forbidden to name the living, and it is impossible to name all those among the dead who are entitled to honor as examples of charity.

It is likely that but a small part of Mr. Lawrence's gifts were for the purpose with which this paper specifically deals, the care and relief of needy families. History records many large donations for this purpose, but they have not been so frequent within the present century as in earlier centuries, partly for the reason that gifts for direct relief, rigidly controlled by the donor's stipulations, were apt to have an injurious effect, and partly because endowments for educational purposes, such as schools and libraries, were found to be far more useful. Aside from donations of large sums by wealthy individuals, there remains, however, a large field for individual help. Indeed it is a question whether the unmeasured, but certainly large, amount of neighborly assistance given in the tenement houses of the city, precisely as in a New England village or in a frontier settlement, does not rank first of all among the means for the alleviation of distress.

The proverbial kindness of the poor to the poor finds ample illustration in the congested quarters of the city, even though physical proximity there counts least in the feeling of responsibility for neighbors. One of the most interesting generalizations made by Mr. Charles Booth is that, while all classes in London give largely in charity, the poorest people give the most in proportion to what they have. This is equally true in American communities. What the housekeeper and the fellow tenants do for the temporary relief of those whose income is cut off by accident, sickness, or misfortune must be given a large place in any statement of relief systems.

Such assistance as this has many advantages over that given by organized societies. There is little probability of imposition, of excessive relief, or of relief that is ill-adapted to its purpose, such as is common in the wholesale distribution made by public officials, and which sometimes shows itself in the work of private agencies. We have no method comparable to that advocated by Dr. Chalmers for Glasgow, *i. e.*, throwing the responsibility for relief entirely upon the private resources of immediate neighbors; and such a plan might prove inadequate, but as an element in the instinctive and unorganized methods by which the community distributes among its members the shock of unexpected want, informal neighborly assistance is always to be given a liberal recognition.

Allied with this, although upon a somewhat different basis, may be placed the professional services of

physicians in the gratuitous practice of which some falls to the share of every physician; the information and advice given by lawyers, who untangle many a snarl, and protect from many a villainy without compensation; assistance given by church members and pastors individually to their own poor, no mention of which appears upon the official records of the church; credit extended with little or no hope of payment by retail dealers, who may be nearly as poor as their customers; forbearance of landlords in the matter of rents; the advance of wages, before they are earned, by employers; and the various other kinds of assistance analogous to these. They are but one step removed from that neighborly charity which gives because of personal acquaintance. It may be said that these are professional or business relations, rather than personal, yet the underlying motive is similar. The impulse is a charitable one, and if in some instances it is a professional rather than a charitable spirit, it is a magnanimous, altruistic professional spirit springing from the same qualities that give rise to neighborliness, friendship, and charity. It is wholly unmeasured and immeasurable in amount. It is not to be denied that it is sometimes ill-advised and unfortunate in its results. It is, however, fundamentally sound and sensible as a feature in the relief of distress. It is one of those elastic and illusive but necessary social forces which supplement organized schemes and insure needed assistance where, from ignorance of the necessity, or from a failure on the part of those who are in trouble, to act in what might be considered the rational manner, the more systematic plans might miscarry. It is, therefore, a creditable as well as a considerable element in the relief

system, and it is not the least of its advantages that it gives peculiar scope for the development of those qualities in the individuals which eventually provide organized charity as well as individual assistance. In America such charity as this is spontaneous in all professions and callings and among persons of all grades of incomes.

It might not seem amiss to enumerate in this connection as an agency for the relief of needy families those means of self-protection from the evil results of sickness, accident, and death which rest upon a business basis, such as benefit societies, benefit features of labor organizations, fraternal associations, insurance societies, and clubs of various kinds. They are not, however, charities, although they are of the greatest possible service in making charity in its lower forms unnecessary. If such preventive organizations covered the whole field of industry, and if personal thrift were developed to the point at which laborers did their own saving instead of paying large sums to others to do their saving for them, the need for providing relief would almost disappear, as the number of needy families would be so small that relatives or neighbors would easily be found to care for them. There would still be room for both the kinds of charity to which reference has last been made, but they could be exercised to a considerable extent in higher spheres. Instead of providing fuel, clothing, and shelter, they would give increased opportunities for social, educational, and industrial advancement, and would only in rare instances need to provide the necessities of life for those who are unable to supply their own wants. Plans of insurance and self-help are not a part of a system of relief, but they are not to be overlooked as welcome alternatives.

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